428 A possible distribution is shown in the following diagram. (Fig. 1) In this arrangement, the first son gets the house site and parcel #4. The second son gets 600 tsubo of the 700 tsubo in parcel #2. The third son gets 600 tsubo in two different places, 100 from parcel #2 and all of parcel #3.

423 311 Now let us take a more complicated situation, one that more closely parallels an actual division. The land of the head of the house is distributed in the following plots:

#1 19 tsubo of first grade rice land. This is a minute holding, roughly equivalent to a rectangle 20' x 34'. The fact that it is first class paddy and very small indicates that it is a rice seed bed (naidoko).

#2, 3, 4 are parcels of rice land, second grade, of 150 tsubo each.

#5 A plot of 3d grade rice land, 300 tsubo.

#6 A plot of 150 tsubo of dry farm land (hatake). This is first grade, but far from the house and in a different area from other family holdings.

#7 One plot of 2d grade dry farm land, 350 tsubo of medium quality but close in.

#8 A plot of 500 tsubo of dry farm land, 4th grade, hence rather poor, but close to the house.

#9 A plot of 400 tsubo dry farm land, 5th grade and barely usable for cultivation, almost like genya land.

428 423 The possible distribution is shown in Fig. 2. In this arrangement, the first son gets the house site, the seed bed (#1) and the three nearby rice fields (#2,3,4), the 500 tsubo of 4th grade dry crop land (#8), and the 350 tsubo of grade 2 dry crop land (#7). The second son receives 150 tsubo of rice land through the subdivision of plot #5, 150 tsubo of first grade dry crop land (#6), and one-half of the 400 tsubo of fifth grade dry crop land (#9). The third son gets the second half of the rice plot (#5), and the second half of the dry crop land (#9).

Summarized, the totals are:

	Total Tsubo*	Rice (Ta)	Dry Crop Land (Hatake)
Total	2159	769	1400
First Son	1319	469	850
Second Son	500	150	350
Third Son	350	150	200

[809] * A tsubo is about four square yards

1: Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

off a main road or village lane. (5) Forest lands (sanrin). This is an important classification in Matsuda, but of minor significance in Hanashiro and Minatogawa. In the latter villages forest land is not recognisable because so many of the trees have been destroyed. In general, forest lands are community owned. (6) Shelter belts or groves of trees along the seashore or on crests of hills for typhoon protection. These are known as bōfurin. The trees are distinct from the forest lands; often they stand in isolated groves. In the south trees for typhoon shelters are confined to the settled area. There are no large groves surrounding and protecting the whole cultivated countryside. (7) Religious sites (haisho). These are small in area, the sites of buildings devoted to the local tutelary deities (ujigami). (8) The village community property (kyōchi). This may include the village office site and school grounds. (9) A miscellaneous classification (zashuchi). This is also public property, including vegetable plots, small public squares, very small parks, ponds, road meeting places and the like. These combined areas are usually small. (10) In the Gushichan area, there is one further classification: destroyed land (tsuborechi). This is land in the war area which has not been or cannot be restored. The pieces are not large. During the war a bulldozer may have made a road out of this land; it may be filled with stones or the shallow top soil of the land may have been scraped off in leveling for an army post or camp.

The bases for grading land within each class are different. In Gushichan township, the main consideration in grading rice land is the availability of water. First class rice land is where the water is. In this township, there are seven grades of rice land, although any one village may have only four or five. The first five grades in the township are rice lands with two yields a year. Grades one through five are determined by the yield of the plot, through past experience. Grades six and seven are one crop areas. The distinctions between the grades can be seen in the following table:

Grade of Rice Land	Expected Yield in Koku per Chō
1	24
2	18
3	15
4	12
5	7.5
6	6.7
7	6.0

A koku is 5.12 US dry bushels. A chō is 3000 tsubo, about 2.45 acres.

If there is a drought in any year, the grades of land are not changed the following year, but the estimate of expected yield may

single criterion is nearness, providing the land has possibilities. Good land, unless of substantial area, if remote and far from roads, is very time consuming and inconvenient.

Genya land in the Gushichan area has two grades. The criterion here is the presence of grass and small shrubs that can be used for firewood. Grade two genya grows little or nothing either because of the large boulders or because it has too many small stones or unconsolidated rock with little vegetation. If it were not for stones or such topographical factors as steepness or ruggedness, some genya land could be classified as poor grade dry crop land. There are, as in rice land, tax differentials according to grade of hatake and genya land:

Grade	Dry Crop Land Tax in Yen	Wild Land (Genya) Tax in Yen
1	13	2
2	12	1.80
3	11	
4	10	
5	9	
6	8	
7	7	
8	6	
9	5	
10	4	

In Ginoza-son, the land classification system is substantially the same. There are six different grades of land classified according to yield in go per tsubo. (A go is 1/1000 of a koku, a tsubo about 4 square yards).

Grade	Yield	Remarks
1	5	Two annual plantings.
2	4	Two annual plantings.
3	3	Dependent entirely on amount of estimated rainfall.
4	2	
5	1.5	
6	1.0	Mountain paddy, very uncertain, depending on rainfall; occasionally two crops a year are possible.

Dry crop land is judged by criteria similar to those in Gushichan-son. Grade 1 is good soil and convenient to water with good yields as shown by experience. Grades 2 and 3 are convenient to water, but soils are of lesser quality. The classification is also based on experience. Grade 4 is in low places, generally narrow ravines between steep wooded slopes. Grades 5 and 6 have little or no water, are stony, and inconvenient.

243 by plowing.

There is water on the land when it is dug and harrowed, but it is not flooded. Not all rice land is harrowed. If it is not harrowed, the same result is accomplished by further hoeing. The harrow (magusa [407] in Japanese, maga in Okinawan) is partly a home made tool and looks like a large clumsily constructed rake. Essentially it is a piece of timber with a row of strong spikes. This timber ordinarily is made of pine, but other woods may be used. Twelve nails, spaced at about two [414] inch intervals, are driven into the board. These nails or spikes, about 8 sun (almost 10 inches long), square at the head, and with a [326] sharp point, are made by a blacksmith for about Yen 20 each. The harrow is drawn by cattle; two shafts, with a yoke over the animal's [231] head complete the simple implement. The plow is used in the preparation [435] of the field, but far more commonly, the work is done with a hoe.

In the fall and winter planting of rice, the seedlings remain in the seed bed for about 40 days. In the summer, the period is only 20 days and may be less. The winter shoots are from 7-8 inches long, the summer shoots from 4-7 inches. The length is important, for if the seedlings are too long, losses in transplanting will, according to Hanashiro farmers, increase to almost half. In rare instances, due to adverse conditions, seedlings in the seed bed reach 15-20 inches in length. The losses here are said to be considerable in transplanting.

[462] The hoeing or the plowing and harrowing of a field is almost exclusively done by men. It is tiring, uncomfortable, and heavy work. It is much more common to see women hoeing the dry crop land. But transplanting is done by men, women, and the older children. A handful of seedlings in the bed is pulled out and bound with straw, grass, or a rush. There is a knack in pulling these out. They must be jerked quickly, but dexterously to avoid root damage. The bundle is tossed either into a central place or into the paddy field to be planted, if it is adjoining. In the latter case, the bunches are tossed to various parts of the paddy.

243 The seedlings are generally set out in rows. For this purpose, a
● 804 string with small markers like buttons (shirushi) is used. These are 7 sun (about 8.4 inches) apart. Both the rows and the hills are 7 sun apart. Differences between rows and hills may vary considerably. In these localities, the distances were generally the same. The string is stretched from one end of the row to the other. Each seedling is planted at the interval indicated by the marker on the string. This method of planting is not universal. When there is little time, the seedlings might be scatter planted.

243 Another method of obtaining the checker-board pattern is by means
804 of a home made hexagonal frame, the waku (literally, a reel or a frame).
413 Each of the six sides is divided into nine squares, 7 sun on the side. The overall length is over six feet. The frame is set along the outside border, or at any desired starting point. When in place, the

bottom will imprint nine squares on the wet soil, and as it is turned another nine will be imprinted so that when continued the field is laid out in tiny squares. Three or four seedlings are planted on the corners of the square made by the waku. 243 804 413

Men operate the frame. As they turn it, making the square pattern on the damp soil, women follow behind with the seedlings. The frame has been in use in Matsuda for about fifteen years. An Okinawan agricultural school student is said to have invented it. It was not used in the southern villages studied, an interesting sidelight on the slowness of innovation even on a small island like Okinawa, for many farmers in the south expressed surprise at its use and had not heard of it. The device is helpful to those with large plots. In Matsuda, there are not many of these frames, but borrowing is frequent. [462] [176] [184] [426]

In contrast with recent introductions, such as the universal treadle thresher, the frame seems to be confined to one geographic area. The reason for this may be that the use of the thresher was actively encouraged by the Japanese as a successful time and labor saving device, while the frame was not similarly publicized. 243 804 [407]

Another method, a more traditional one, is to use a piece of wood the same length as the waku with seven little knobs and the two ends to give the nine spaces. This is the jiyogi. A piece of string stretched from one end of the field to the other is used to get a straight line along a row. When the planting has taken place along one row, the jiyogi is used to measure off one space between rows, the guide line is moved over and the operation repeated. This achieves the same purpose as the frame or the string with the markers. Men are more likely to handle these operations, the women following along with the transplanting. But the division of labor is by no means hard and fast. [462]

Care of rice until its maturity. Rice set out in squares is easier to cultivate, weed, and harvest. During its growth, it will be necessary occasionally to loosen the soil or to break up clods which escaped the initial working. There may be some temporary drainage of water off the fields at these times. 243

Weeding rice is usually done by hand, though once in a while a farmer has a hand cultivator. Weeding the rice field is an unrelenting job which is done about once a week. More attention is given to this task when the plants are younger. Weeding is worked in with other daily chores, and all members of the family may participate.

The rice is now allowed to grow with the hope that strong winds or a typhoon will not blow over the slender shoots or submerge them. If the rice is submerged when the shoots are still fairly young, they will gradually right themselves. Farmers say that attempting to upright the plants by hand will not work. The quality of rice once submerged is poor and sometimes half the rice in the plot is lost. If the submersion occurs when the plants are near maturity and the stalks are 20 or 25

241 311 [804] a/ A chō is 3000 tsubo, or about 2.45 acres.

Source: Agricultural Section, Gushichan Village Office, Gushichan-son, Okinawa, September 1951.

In Ginoza-son, statistics for crops on an individual village basis were only obtainable in part. Some Matsuda figures which were available indicate that rice, the sweet potato, and sugar cane were the most important of the crops:

Rice lands 82,151 tsubo (about 27.4 chō)
Summer planting: 58,000
Fall planting: 54,000
112,000 tsubo, including double cropping.

Dry Crop Land 188,305 tsubo (about 62.8 chō)

Sugar Cane:
Summer planting 2170 tsubo
Spring planting 6840 " "
9010 tsubo

The greater part of the remaining dry crop land is believed to be in sweet potatoes.

8

Native Uncultivated Plants of Use to Man
(Other than Forest Trees)

824 In the south, trees such as the banyan (gajimaru), the Japanese redwood (sugi), and the usuki are important within the village as windbreaks. The importance of miscanthus sinensis, often called kaya or susuki, has already been mentioned. Certain plants, used for medicinal purposes, are becoming scarce and are being displaced by modern drugs, but have some interest. Other plants, formerly used in home industries for weaving and making straw sandals, have also declined in importance in the villages.

In the south one of the most interesting associations is that of the Ryukyuan pine (Pinus ryukyuensis), the cycad (sotetsu in Japanese, Cycas revoluta, Thumb.) and Chinese silver grass (miscanthus sinensis). The Ryukyu pine in this area is little more than a shrub. It has some uses for firewood and for minor construction, but the lumber for substantial houses comes from the northern forests.

[262] The cycad, now rather uncommon in this area, has had several uses. The whole plant may be a windbreak or be used for firewood. A form of starch (ranpun in Japanese, kunu in Okinawan) is made from this plant, a food traditionally used in time of great hardship or crop failure.

One can infrequently observe women walking from Minatogawa to nearby villages to sell their fish. Women and young girls also sell fish locally, standing somewhere off the main street with their hand scale (hakkari) and a basket or bucket of fish. Housewives come up, price the individual fish, often weighing it for themselves on the hand scale. 443 809

Like the Chinese scale, this is simply a round piece of wood on one end of which there is a weight. The fulcrum is a string, held in the hand, which holds the scale. The item to be weighed is put in a basket and placed on the other end. The weight is ascertained by moving the counter-weight till both sides are in balance. Markings along the piece of wood show the exact amount. Every village shop has one of these scales.

There is very little haggling over prices, although the housewife is choosy and will inquire the cost of different individual fish before deciding which one, if any, to buy. 443

Usually the night's catch is marketed the following morning. Women, by custom, receive a fee for selling fish. A woman who takes her husband's and his partner's fish to market (the catch being insufficient for both wives to participate) is paid her fee by weight. 443 465

25 kin (about 33 pounds) sold at Y30 per kin	Y1500
Woman's share, at Y5 per kin	- 150
Remainder	Y1350
Each Partner's Share	675

[804]

The Y5 per kin is a selling commission. If more than one woman goes, the fee is split between them. Women pay all expenses and their bus fare from the commission. Occasionally wives alternate in taking the catch to market.

When the woman of a fishing family takes fish to market, she is doing more than performing an errand. Her skill in bargaining and general knowledge of prices, of the catch and the demand for various kinds of fish determine whether she gets a good or only a fair price. Generally, mature women sell the fish. Younger women, in the late teens and early twenties, often accompany the older women as helpers and gradually are initiated into the tricks of the trade. Young women, not being skillful, are more likely to accept the first offer, or to sell below the highest price obtainable. One source of family quarreling (fufukonka) is the anger of a husband when his wife has sold at a lower price than his neighbor's wife. Women who have children leave them with a relative, or an older daughter. When the wife of the family is unable to sell the fish because her children are too young, the chore is taken over by a woman relative. In Minatogawa, this substitute work also is often done by widows who, in addition, might sell fish caught by male relatives. 443 562 [578] [855] [589]

The money earned by women in the marketing of the fish, after 000

316 425 435 (1951-52) is from Y300-400 per tsubo (about four square yards), much higher than ordinary agricultural land. The price varies with supposed quality. The good judgment of the purchaser is necessary for success. He must estimate the quantity of stone, its depth, whether there may be cracks, fissures, or black streaks below, and the effect of underground water as he cuts down deeper. In a year, a good stonecutter can remove stone from about four tsubo of land. If he has extra capital, he may hire help.

316 472 The types of employment found are either the single operator or the small operator who has one or more employees. The industry is not notable for large capital outlays, or many employees of a single operator. A simple partnership is common. There may be some division of labor, with the owner of the rights doing all the cutting, while a friend or relative who does this as a secondary occupation assists in the removal of the stone and in loading it on a horse cart. The operator who has a piece of land too large to work by himself may hire someone. The employee (yatoi in Japanese, ninpu in Okinawan) is paid according to skill: Y100 [465] a day for a beginning 17 or 18 year old boy, Y150 to the experienced, and Y200 to the worker who can do all phases of the work quickly and skillfully.

Much depends on the nature of the stone being worked. This varies [804] by locality and with moisture content. It will require 8 hours for a man to cut a six shaku (about six feet) length of hard rock 1 shaku [461] 2 sun (14.4 inches) deep, but he may be able to make three cuttings of moist or wet rock in the same period. Working time naturally varies with the strength and skill of the cutter. For this reason, piece [465] work payment is common. The employee, however, may work unused portions of the holdings, receiving two-thirds of the value of the stone cut.

3

Tools and Types of Stone Cut

413 Six tools are used in cutting and extracting the sandstone: (1) the hichi (Okinawan). This tool, about six feet long, resembles a crow bar, but has a sharp chisel edge for cutting the stone. (2) A sharp hand axe (ono in Japanese, yuki in Okinawan) for chipping and finishing, (3) the ishiyuki, a smaller axe, used like the yuki, for chipping and finishing but principally in shaping pyramidal stones (kenchi). The tool is also used to knock off the rough edges of the stone, where it has been split, an operation often performed by old men. (4) The kusukacha (Okinawan). This reminds one of a small light golf iron. It has a handle four or five feet long with a metal strip attached at an angle to one end. It is used to rake off chippings and dust that accumulate in the groove while the cut is being made with the long chisel. (5) Wedges (iya in Okinawan), and (6) sledge hammers are used to split off the stone after the cut has been made.

316 Methods of working with these tools are very simple. The surface dirt is cleared away until the stone to be cut is visible and clean.

The truck or horsecart of the buyer comes to the stonecutting area, the blocks are loaded and taken away. Prior to sale, for convenience, stone may be taken from the cutting area. It is loaded on horse carts, the men carrying the heavy blocks by means of ropes looped around the ends of the stone and over poles which in turn rest on the shoulders. A six foot length (1 ken linear measure), one foot wide and about ten inches thick sells for ¥140 (1951-52).

Foot injuries are the chief hazards of this occupation. The toes may be accidentally cut by the long chisel, and there is danger of bruising or crushing by accidentally dropping the block, or by rolling when it is being dislodged. Very hard and calloused hands are the mark of the stonecutter; his hands are especially conspicuous for the hard, raised areas on the palm around the base of the fingers, the result of the constant lifting and pounding of the long chisel. There is also danger to the eyes in flying chips but few use glasses or goggles.

Like some phases of fishing, this work is for the young and the physically mature men. After the middle forties or early fifties, a man no longer does the heavy work and confines himself to lighter chores. The very old and the retired may chip and finish the foundation and the pyramidal stones.

If a cutter is unable to extract all the stone in a plot whose stone he has bought, there are also customary solutions. When the father dies, his son continues the workings and returns the field to the owner. If a stone worker moves to another village when only half the work has been done, he arranges for a friend, relative, or neighbor to take over the remaining part.

4

Restoring the Land

Formerly excavations (which might be 10 or 15 feet deep and the size of a large room) were refilled by the buyer of the stone rights. Rocks, pebbles, and miscellaneous trash were used as fill, but following the war there has been a heavy demand for rock and stone for road construction. As a consequence, many excavations are now only partly refilled. After refilling, houses are built on the sites of formerly excavated land. Here and there one can see sweet potatoes or vegetables growing on land which formerly was covered with stone. The original state of the land, its appearance after excavation and its restoration may be seen in Figure 2. Evidences of this reclamation may be seen throughout the stoneworking area.

Minatogawa, because it lacks vegetation for protective and decorative purposes, is a good example of the use and adaptation of stone to local needs. There are still stone fences, waist or shoulder height, and many small stone boundary lines, a foot or two and of uneven height. Coral stones, weathered by the sea, honeycombed and pocked, are seen everywhere.

60% of the proceeds. The trees thus sold are all cut down. After clearcutting, the area is left to natural reseeding. About twenty years hence, the clearing will again be sufficiently forested to permit repetition of the same procedure. This follows an established Japanese pre-war practice. This was known as the five year period share (gonenkanbun). The forest is divided into subdivisions, each 110 chō in area. (A chō is 2.45 acres). These 110 chō plots are in turn subdivided into five parcels of twenty-two chō each. Each year one of these five subdivisions may be cleared.

Throughout the forest, divided up into these plots, there may be a five year cycle of cutting, but not all the plots are available every year. If this were so, the forest could be cut over in five years. The system is planned so that there will always be parcels being cleared, those in various stages of regrowth, and mature stands. During and after the war, this practice broke down in favor of uncontrolled cutting.

If a family has little cash, a villager may pay his taxes in part by cutting wood. The village office pays Y4 for a bundle of firewood (late 1951), Y2 going to the villager as a cash payment, and Y2 being applied to his taxes for the year.

The farmer makes frequent excursions to the mountains to obtain firewood or poles to make improvements in the compound, such as repairing a tool or food shed. Men do this work, especially when the distances are far, but the participation of women is by no means exceptional. Along the roads of northern Okinawa, one can frequently see old women walking down from the mountains carrying bundles of firewood on heavy poles. Much of the wood is hand carried from the mountains; if the farmer has a horse and cart or a truck, the wood is carried to a convenient road for loading and transport.

Charcoal is manufactured in the forest area. In Okinawa charcoal has many uses, mainly for heating and cooking, and for charcoal sticks (senko). Lumps of charcoal are placed in braziers and the sticks are used as touchwood in place of matches and in ceremonial and religious observances. Charcoal containers (tangu) are often constructed on the spot. These are round or box-shaped and made out of the dwarf bamboo.

Charcoal kilns are privately owned. They are of the simplest sort. The kiln may be covered with a rude housing, built up by poles and a thatch roof. A mound of large boulders and dirt is built with an opening on the dirt floor running the length of the firing area. Poles which have been stripped and cut in various lengths, from five to nine feet, are shoved in the opening and moved forward as they burn. The smoke comes out the back.

Forest maintenance and improvement is, in part, a result of community endeavor. With some exceptions, each person in the village from 16 to 60 participates one day a year in forest improvement (gōrin).[8] The participants are boys past school age, unmarried girls, and all men up to the age of 60. These people work without personal remunera-

[8] The usual meaning of gōrin is afforestation or reforestation. In Matsuda it is used in the sense of care and improvement of the forest.

1:Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

shopping trip to a larger town. In the very common evening visiting among men, women participate very little. 562

There has been some improvement in the social position of women since the war. In Hanashiro, for example, before the war, the husband, children, and grandparents ate in the second or third room, while the wife and sometimes the eldest daughter ate in the kitchen. (The Okinawan kitchen, though part of the house, differs from the other rooms in that it has direct access to the outside, is generally on a level with the ground, and has a dirt, cement, or stone floor). The wife in preparing the meal can go back and forth readily and need not take off her clogs or wash her feet if she goes barefoot when she goes up into the rooms. Her meal is a slight interlude between duties. 562 264 [342]

In most homes now, the women eat with the family in the main house. Some old women still spend most of their time in the kitchen watching the fire and eating their meals there. One of the reasons given for the change in attitude toward women is that many of the repatriated Okinawans brought newer ideas with them and did not practice segregation at meal times. [178]

Another important fact about social life is the drinking of the men and the abstinence of the women.[3] Young men usually begin drinking sake around the age of marriage. It is exceptional for a young man in his teens or early twenties to drink. But once this dividing line is passed, it is the exceptional man who does not drink. In each village one finds a few lifelong teetotalers. Drinking is always done in company, as the climax of a task completed, because of some happy turn of events, or because there is a party or celebration. As a general rule, the village men do not drink every day, but only when a suitable occasion arises. While there is drunkenness, I did not observe the solitary, prolonged drinking commonly associated with alcoholism in western societies. Prolonged drinking at night has the expected effects the next day, but there is very little remorse, unless a man has done something of which he is subsequently ashamed. Men who have drunk too much the night before do not hesitate to lie in bed 273 [562] [133]

[TEXT CONTINUES TOP OF P. 295--ANALYST]

3 In Okinawa, the commonest and cheapest alcoholic drink is sake. This is not the same as Japanese sake, the light rice wine, slightly resembling sauterne, that is usually served warm or hot. Okinawan sake is awamori, a much stronger drink of distilled rice spirits, a variety of the Japanese shochu. The alcoholic content of awamori ranges from about 25% to 30%. It is a raw liquor with an unpleasant taste. It is not the favorite, but it is the cheapest drink. Awamori is made from rice in small distilleries throughout Okinawa, bottled in large jugs and distributed to village shops. Most shops carry it. Sometimes there are special sake shops. Awamori or sake is sold for about Y14 per go (.318 pint). The normal intake for an evening is considered to be 2 go. Most men are fairly inebriated after drinking this much. The American army canteen, when available, is the favorite sake container. Japanese and American beer and Japanese sake are liked, but too expensive. 279 435 804

1: Glacken E-5 (1951-1952) 1953 AC7 Okinawa AC7

13

Home Industries, Arts, and Crafts

438 Home industries, arts, and crafts are not a conspicuous part of the life of the villages studied. Even before the war, home crafts, training in dancing, singing, landscape gardening were not cultivated to any degree.

252 Certain foods, like bean curd and bean paste, are made in the home. There is a standard method of preparing bean curd. The soy beans are soaked until soft and then mashed in a hand operated stone mill or quern. This mill has two round stones. The top stone, turned by hand, rests on the stationary bottom stone. The crushed beans, thinned by frequent dashes of water, ooze out of the space between the two stones. This liquid is collected and strained through a cloth drawn over the top of a frame box. The residue in the cloth is saved for pig food. The liquid is boiled. After it curdles, it is strained. The curds remain in the cloth, the liquid is also used for the pigs. The curds, of the consistency of a soft cottage cheese, are wrapped in a cloth and put in the frame box. A tight fitting lid is put on the box and pressed down hard to expel the rest of the liquid. After the curd has been thoroughly pressed, the frame box is turned upside down, the curd taken out, and the cloth wrapper removed. The smooth mold can now be sliced. It is a common sight to see women operating these mills in the villages before a family celebration or a public holiday. Bean curd, fried, boiled in a soup, or in a mixture with vegetables, or as an ingredient of sukiyaki is always served at a party.

[231]

[574]

25] Bean paste (miso), an even more important food, is also made
252 in the home. Most families serve bean paste soup (misoshiru) every
[264] meal every day. It has four basic ingredients: soy beans, rice (or barley), salt, and water. Recipes differ considerably among families. In one recipe, 8 sho of rice are boiled, after which it is spread out on a large flat basket to drain, and then placed on a mat and allowed to ferment for about one week. An equal amount of soy beans, crushed in a stone mortar, is mixed with the rice. Salt (about 7 go, one go being 1/10 of a sho) is added and the mixture is boiled.[8] The salt retards fermentation and is a preservative. If obtainable, an American hand food grinder is preferred to the mortar and pestle. The mixture is put in a large jar (tsubo) which is placed in the kitchen or in a storeroom and allowed to stand at least a year, sometimes for three. With age, the paste becomes sweeter and is considered to be better. A woman may make three large jars of bean paste 3 times a year, the frequency depending on the size of the jars. Some are 5 1/2 feet high. Occasionally the cycad is an ingredient of miso. Every house has a supply of bean paste. When ready for use, it is very soluble in water.

[804]

8 A koku equals 10 to equals 100 sho equals 1000 go, 47.96 US gallons liquid, 5.12 US dry bushels.